Semidominant Suppressors of Srs2 Helicase Mutations of Saccharomyces cerevisiae Map in the RAD51 Gene, Whose Sequence Predicts a Protein with Similarities to Procaryotic RecA Proteins

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Eleven suppressors of the radiation sensitivity of Saccharomyces cerevisiae diploids lacking the Srs2 helicase were analyzed and found to contain codominant mutations in the RAD51 gene known to be involved in recombinational repair and in genetic recombination. These mutant alleles confer an almost complete block in recombinational repair, as does deletion of RAD51, but heterozygous mutant alleles suppress the defects of srs2::LEU2 cells and are semidominant in Srs2⁺ cells. The results of this study are interpreted to mean that wild-type Rad51 protein binds to single-stranded DNA and that the semidominant mutations do not prevent this binding. The cloning and sequencing of RAD51 indicated that the gene encodes a predicted 400-amino-acid protein with a molecular mass of 43 kDa. Sequence comparisons revealed homologies to domains of Escherichia coli RecA protein predicted to be involved in DNA binding, ATP binding, and ATP hydrolysis. The expression of RAD51, measured with a RAD51-lacZ gene fusion, was found to be UV- and γ -ray-inducible, with dose-dependent responses.

In Saccharomyces cerevisiae, the different DNA repair mechanisms are controlled by genes that have been classified into epistasis groups, according to the synergistic, additive, or epistatic interactions of the mutant genes (for reviews, see references 14 and 19). Synergistic interactions were interpreted to reflect the existence of different repair pathways having a common substrate (13, 15). In a mutant, the repair metabolism may be arrested at a step involving a compound that may or may not be a substrate for an alternative pathway. This, in some cases, may explain some of the diversity in the phenotypes conferred by mutations in different genes in the same epistatic group. The study of interactions between mutations, either by the construction of double mutants or by the isolation of suppressors of mutant phenotypes, is a way to explore the pathways and their possible connections.

The SRS2 gene (also HPR5 and RADH [42]) of S. cerevisiae encodes a DNA helicase involved in DNA repair (1), its helicase activity having recently been demonstrated by in vitro assays (27). All of the known srs2 mutants are partial suppressors of the high radiation sensitivity of rad18 and rad6 mutants (1, 2, 30, 42, 47), both of which have impaired error-prone repair processes (8, 29). A subset of the srs2 mutations, including the deletion mutations, confer to haploid cells a depressed UV-induced mutagenesis and a sensitivity to the lethal effect of UV. However, only cells treated in the G₁ mitotic phase are sensitive to UV, while cells in G₂ show a UV resistance dependent on the RAD50 gene, needed for recombinational repair involving sister chromatids (16). These results led us to conclude that the lack of SRS2 results in a channelling of the metabolism of potentially mutagenic lesions into a recombinational pathway.

An unexpected property of *srs2::LEU2* cells was the radiation sensitivity of homozygous diploids, as the channel-

The first part of this communication deals with the interaction of mutations in *RAD51* and *SRS2* genes. We show that the channelling to recombination observed in *srs2* mutants following UV irradiation is likely due to the binding of recombinational proteins to single-stranded DNA. Since all the codominant suppressors of the radiation sensitivity of *srs2* diploids were *RAD51* mutants, it is believed that the Rad51 protein plays a central role in the initiation of recombination events, which could well correspond to the binding of the protein to single-stranded DNA.

In the second part of this article, we report the sequences of the *RAD51* gene and of the putative Rad51 protein which shares homologies with the procaryotic RecA protein. We also show that the *RAD51* gene is induced in response to radiation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains, media, growth conditions, and transformation methods. The yeast strains are listed in Table 1. The rad51-1 mutation was initially isolated by Nakai and Matsumoto (37). The isogenic series of strains were constructed by transforming haploid strain FF18733 with a replicative plasmid containing HO in order to induce the mating-type switch and to

ling yields to lethal events of recombination if homologous chromosomes are involved. To approach this question, we have studied suppressors of this diploid sensitivity. The genetic characterization of a number of suppressors indicated that they all contained a codominant mutation in a single gene that turned out to be *RAD51*. This gene, cloned several years ago by Calderon et al. (7), is known to control recombinational repair and different aspects of genetic recombination (36, 45; for a review, see reference 14). Neither a *rad51* genomic deletion nor *rad51* mutations isolated on the basis of their X-ray sensitivity are, when heterozygous, suppressors of the radiation sensitivity of *srs2*::*LEU2* diploids.

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TABLE 1. Yeast strains

Cell type and strain	Relevant genotype					
Isogenic haploids						
FF18733	a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2					
FF18734						
FF18744						
FF18745						
FF18816	a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 rad51-10					
FF18818	α leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 rad51-10					
FF18958	a leu 2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 rad51::URA3					
FF18959						
	a leu2-3,112d trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 srs2::LEU2 rad51-10					
	α leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 srs2::LEU2 rad51-10					
FF18961	a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3					
FF18962	α leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1-1 his7-2 srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3					
Isogenic a/α diploids derived from the isogenic haploids						
FF18735 (FF18733 × FF18734)	SRS2/SRS2 RAD51/RAD51					
FF18749 (FF18744 × FF18745)	srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 RAD51/RAD51					
FF18982 (FF18816 × FF18818)						
FF18960 (FF18958 × FF18959)						
FF18981 (FF18816 × FF18734)	SRS2/SRS2 rad51-10/RAD51					
FF181048 (FF18958 × FF18734)	SRS2/SRS2 rad51::URA3/RAD51					
FF 18789 (FF18785 × FF18787)						
FF18963 (FF18961 × FF18962)	srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3/rad51::URA3					
FF18952 (FF18961 × FF18745)	srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3/RAD51					
FF18784						
Other strains						
FF181002	<u>a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 lys1 lys2 his7-1 RAD51</u>					
	α LEU2 TRP1 LYS1 LYS2 his7-2 RAD51					
FF181005	<u>a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 lys1 lys2 his7-1 rad51::URA3</u>					
	α LEU2 TRP1 LYS1 LYS2 his7-2 rad51::URA3					
FF181173	<u>a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 lys1 lys2 his7-1 rad51::URA3</u>					
	α LEU2 TRP1 LYS1 LYS2 his7-2 RAD51					
FF181179	<u>a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1 tyr1 his7-1 rad51-10</u>					
	α leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 LYS1 TYR1 his7-1 RAD51					
FF181056	<u>a leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 lys1 tyr1 his7-1 rad51-10</u>					
	α leu2-3,112 trp1-289 ura3-52 LYS1 TYR1 his7-1 rad51-10					

^a This strain kindly provided by D. H. Hawthorne.

recover diploids which were sporulated to isolate haploids of both mating types. Genomic deletions of RAD51 or SRS2 were done by the one-step gene disruption method (44) using a rad51::URA3 plasmid (this study) or a srs2::LEU2 plasmid constructed in our laboratory. Escherichia coli strains were HB101, TG1, and JM101 (JM101 was used for phage production). For yeast cells, the growth (YPD), minimal (SD), and sporulation (SM) media were as described by Sherman et al. (48). The YPD-MMS medium consisted of YPD medium containing 0.01% methyl methane sulfonate (MMS) (Sigma). For selection of can1 mutants, 20 µg of canavanine (Sigma) per ml was added to SD medium supplemented with the desired elements. LB and M9 media (34) were used for bacteria. Yeast cells were grown at 30°C. The liquid cultures were aerated by vigorous agitation. Transformation of yeast cells was done with lithium acetate (23), and transformation of bacteria was done by the method of Maniatis et al. (34).

Irradiation. Cells growing exponentially $(1 \times 10^7 \text{ to } 2 \times 10^7/\text{ml})$ in liquid YPD medium were washed by centrifugation in saline (0.9% NaCl), resuspended at the desired concentration in saline, and irradiated. Irradiation by UV light (260 nm) or by γ -rays (⁶⁰Co) was performed as described earlier (1). For mutagenesis, cells were treated after plating.

Mutation and recombination rates. In each experiment, 12 independent cultures inoculated at 10²/ml in liquid YPD

medium were grown for 72 h up to the stationary phase. For each one, the frequency of recombinants (His⁺) or mutants (can1 or Lys⁺) was determined by plating on differential medium. The rates were determined by the method of the medium (31). The meiotic rates of recombination were measured by treating sporulated cultures with Zymolyase (Seikagaku Kogyo Co. Ltd.) for 4 h, a treatment that kills most of the vegetative cells and digests the walls of asci. After the cultures were washed and sonicated, aliquots were plated on complete or selective medium to determine the frequencies of His⁺ clones. To show that the clones were derived from asci and not from vegetative cells, the frequencies of clones in which the recessive markers had segregated out were determined by replica plating.

DNA manipulations and sequencing. All the DNA manipulation and sequencing methods used were the standard ones described by Maniatis et al. (34). For sequencing, the BamHI fragment (see Fig. 6) was subcloned into pTZ18R and pTZ19R plasmids and overlapping deletions were obtained by DNase I treatments (32). Sequencing was done by the dideoxy technique (46).

lacZ fusion and lacZ assays. lacZ was fused to RAD51 using a mini-Mu derivative transposon containing the yeast LEU2 gene and the 2µm circle origin of replication (10). The BamHI-EcoRV fragment containing RAD51 was cloned into pBR322, and the resultant plasmid was used to transform a

bacterial strain containing the inducible transposon. Plasmids of transductants that expressed lacZ (tested on LB medium supplemented with 20 µg of X-Gal [5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-galactopyranoside] per ml) were extracted and subjected to restriction analysis. Plasmid p51G-1 with an in-frame RAD51-lacZ fusion close to the NruI site (see Fig. 6) was integrated into the RAD51 locus of the FF18733 haploids. Quantification of β -galactosidase by colorimetry using chlorophenol red- β -D-galactopyranoside as the substrate was done by the method of Simon and Lis (50) and performed on aliquots of liquid cultures containing 5 × 10^6 to 2 × 10^7 cells. β -Galactosidase units correspond to $(OD_{574} \times 1,000)$ /minutes of reaction/ $(OD_{660} \times V)$, where OD_{574} is the optical density at 574 nm and V is the volume (in milliliters) of the aliquot.

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The *RAD51* sequence reported in this article has been registered in the EMBL data library and given accession number X64270.

RESULTS

Isolation and characterization of suppressors of the radiosensitivity of srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 diploids. (i) Isolation of the suppressed strains. Diploids homozygous for a genomic deletion of SRS2 are sensitive to the lethal effects of UV, ionizing radiation, and MMS (1). To select suppressors of MMS sensitivity, colonies of strain FF18749, homozygous for srs2::LEU2, were replica plated on YPD medium containing MMS at a concentration that inhibits growth of the mutant but not that of wild-type cells. Since MMS is a radiomimetic drug, the resistant cells were expected to have also become γ -ray resistant. After 4 days of incubation, a number of papillae developed into colonies, of which 11 were analyzed. All of the mutations had similar effects and were found to affect a single gene. We therefore describe only one of them.

(ii) Meiotic analysis of the suppressed srs2::LEU2/srs2:: LEU2 diploids. An MMS-resistant clone (FF18784) isolated from the sensitive srs2::LEU2 homozygous diploids (FF18749), was sporulated and 24 asci were dissected. Of the 24 asci, 22 had 4 viable spores, indicating that not only the MMS sensitivity but also the defect in spore germination conferred by the srs2::LEU2 deletion was suppressed (about 40% inviable spores for srs2::LEU2 homozygotes versus less than 5% for isogenic wild-type cells).

In all tetrads, the MMS resistance segregated 2:2. Since the haploid srs2::LEU2 cells are MMS resistant, this suggested that the sensitive clones were those containing the suppressor which made the srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 diploids resistant. To see whether this was indeed the case, the tetrads were crossed with srs2::LEU2 tester strains. The MMS resistance of the resultant diploids segregated 2:2, and the resistant diploids (srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 SUP/sup) were those which had the MMS-sensitive cells (srs2::LEU2 SUP) as parental haploids. Thus, the initial diploid contained a single mutation which in the heterozygous state renders srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 diploids resistant to MMS and srs2::LEU2 haploids sensitive to MMS.

(iii) Isolation of the suppressor from the srs2::LEU2 context. A srs2::LEU2 haploid strain (FF18785) containing the suppressor mutation was crossed with isogenic wild-type cells (FF18734). The diploids were sporulated and asci were dissected in order to separate the suppressor mutation from srs2::LEU2. The MMS sensitivity segregated 2:2, independently from the segregation of srs2::LEU2, indicating that the mutation by itself confers MMS sensitivity. Qualitative

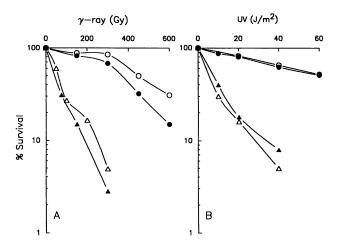


FIG. 1. Suppression of the sensitivity of *srs2::LEU2* homozygous diploids by the heterozygous *rad51-10* mutation. Symbols: ○, *SRS2/SRS2 RAD51/RAD51* (FF18735); ○, *srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 rad51-10/RAD51* (FF18784); △, *srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 RAD51/RAD51* (FF18749); ▲, *srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3/RAD51* (FF18952).

tests of UV sensitivity revealed that this mutation had no sensitizing effect. It suggested that the mutated gene could be one of the genes of the *RAD50* series, since haploid *rad50* mutants are MMS sensitive and only weakly UV sensitive.

(iv) The suppressor is localized to RAD51. Complementation tests for MMS sensitivity between our suppressor mutant and rad50 to rad57 mutants were performed. No complementation was found with a rad51-1 strain isolated on the basis of X-ray sensitivity. We then crossed our mutant (FF18787) with a met6 mutant (FF18588). MET6 is tightly linked to RAD51. Of 42 tetrads, no recombination between met6 and the suppressor was found, indicating that the mutation was most likely in RAD51. The definitive proof was later obtained after cloning of the gene, by plasmid complementation of rad51 mutants. We named these suppressors rad51-10 to rad51-20.

Genetic and physiological properties conferred by rad51-10. (i) Effects of rad51-10 in srs2::LEU2 cells: codominance of the mutation. The cloning of the RAD51 gene allowed the construction of strains with chromosomal deletions of this gene (described below). The UV and γ -ray survival of isogenic strains with different combinations of rad51-10, rad51::URA3, srs2::LEU2, and the corresponding wild-type genes were compared. Since rad51-10 was found to have a dominant suppressor effect on the MMS sensitivity of srs2::LEU2 cells, we questioned whether this effect was specific to the rad51-10 mutation or related to the absence of functional Rad51 protein.

Diploids homozygous for srs2::LEU2 and heterozygous for rad51-10 show survival rates close to that of wild-type cells, after exposure to γ -rays or UV (Fig. 1). In contrast, heterozygosity for rad51::URA3 (Fig. 1) or rad51-1 (data not shown) does not suppress the UV or γ -ray sensitivity of diploids homozygous for srs2::LEU2 (Fig. 1). The dominant suppressor effect of rad51-10 is therefore specific to this mutation.

When the rad51-10 or rad51::URA3 mutation is homozygous, the cells are still γ -ray sensitive, but their UV sensitivity is largely suppressed (Fig. 2). This suppression is, however, not specific to rad51 mutants, since mutations in

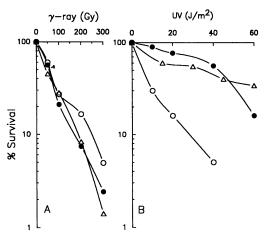


FIG. 2. Radiation survival of diploids homozygous for srs2:: LEU2 and for rad51 mutations. Symbols: ●, srs2::LEU2/srs2:: LEU2 rad51-10/rad51-10 (FF18789); △, srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3 rad51::URA3 (FF18963); ○, srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 RAD51/RAD51 (FF18749).

other genes involved in recombinational repair have the same effect (unpublished results).

In haploids, as shown in Fig. 3A, the srs2::LEU2 mutants are not more γ -ray sensitive than wild-type cells. The tails of the survival curves, as a result of recombinational repair between sister chromatids in G_2 cells, are eliminated by rad51:10 as well as by rad51::URA3 mutations.

After UV irradiation (Fig. 3B), the srs2::LEU2 cells are sensitive if irradiated in G_1 but not if cells are irradiated in G_2 . The lack of G_1 repair was shown to be correlated with a deficiency in error-prone repair, explained by a channelling of the metabolism of potentially mutagenic lesions into a recombinational pathway (1). The UV sensitization by srs2::LEU2 of G_1 haploids is suppressed not only by rad51-10 but also by rad51::URA3. At the same time, induced mutagenesis is restored, as shown in Fig. 3B for rad51-10. A similar suppression was found to be conferred by mutations in other genes governing recombination (unpublished results).

These data show that rad51-10 suppresses the srs2::LEU2

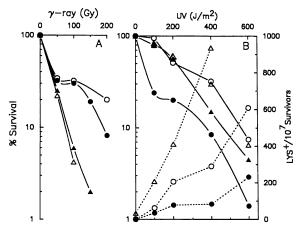


FIG. 3. Radiation responses of haploid cells. Symbols: ○, SRS2 RAD51 (FF18733); ○, srs2::LEU2 RAD51 (FF18744); △, srs2::LEU2 rad51-10 (FF18785); ▲, srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3 (FF18961).

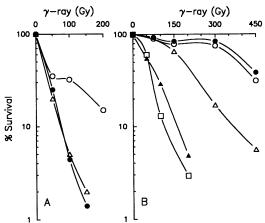


FIG. 4. γ -ray survival of SRS2 haploids and homozygous SRS2 diploids containing different rad51 mutations. (A) Haploids. Symbols: \bigcirc , RAD51 (FF18733); \bigcirc , rad51-10 (FF18816); \triangle , rad51::URA3 (FF18958). (B) Diploids. Symbols: \bigcirc , RAD51/RAD51 (FF18735); \bigcirc , rad51::URA3/RAD51 (FF181048); \triangle , rad51::URA3/rad51:URA3/rad51:URA3/rad51::URA3/rad51::URA3/rad51

defect and at the same time eliminates recombinational repair. The fact that srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 diploids, heterozygous for rad51-10, have almost wild-type phenotypes after exposure to γ-rays or UV indicates that both the wild-type and mutated genes are expressed: RAD51 allows recombinational repair to occur, and rad51-10 suppresses the srs2::LEU2 effects. The two allelic forms are therefore codominant.

(ii) Effects of rad51-10 in SRS2+ cells: semidominance of the mutation. In the SRS2⁺ genetic context, rad51-10 or rad51::URA3 haploids or homozygous diploids are only weakly (if at all) UV sensitive (data not shown) but are γ -ray sensitive: recombinational repair is eliminated by the mutations, as seen from the lack of repair in haploids in G_2 (Fig. 4A) and from the diploid sensitivity (Fig. 4B). In heterozygous diploids, the rad51::URA3 mutation is recessive, while the rad51-10 mutation is semidominant: these diploids are significantly more sensitive than wild-type diploids but are still much more resistant than homozygous rad51/rad51 cells. This semidominance of rad51-10 was also observed for sporulation. Sporulation of homozygous rad51-10 diploids was 10% (versus 70% for wild-type cells) and spore viability was about 2% (2 viable monosporic clones of 24 tetrads), versus 96% for wild-type cells. In heterozygous rad51-10 cells, sporulation was 30% and spore viability was 60%.

In order to determine whether the semidominance of rad51-10 was related to the relative proportions of the wild-type and mutated proteins, a series of isogenic tetraploids containing different numbers of rad51-10 alleles was constructed. The γ-ray sensitivity of the cells increases with the copy number of the mutated allele. After 200 Gy, the values for percent survival were 50, 13, 7, 1.2, and 0.9 for tetraploids containing 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 copies of rad51-10, respectively. Since the recessiveness of rad51::URA3 indicates that the Rad51 protein is not rate limiting, this gene dosage effect suggests that the Rad51-10 protein competes with the wild-type Rad51 protein either in protein-protein interactions or in the binding to recombinational structures.

(iii) Mutator effect of rad51-10. The rates of spontaneous forward mutations leading to canavanine resistance

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	Revertants per 10 ⁶ survivors and radiation survival (%)										
Relevant genotype		γ-	rays (Gy)				UV (J/m²)				
	0	50	100	150	200	0	15	30	45	60	
RAD51/RAD51	4 (100)	41 (80)	88 (70)	102 (61)	182 (49)	3 (100)	33 (100)	90 (100)	190 (95)	387 (73)	
rad51::URA3/rad51::URA3	0.3 (100)	< 0.7 (45)	1.3 (24)	<1 (7)	NT^b	0.5 (100)	1.7 (87)	1.3 (74)	10 (34)	4 (14)	
rad51-10/rad51-10	< 0.1 (100)	0.25 (58)	0.2(22)	NT	<2 (7)	0.15 (100)	1.3 (92)	2.5 (64)	4.5 (58)	16 (20)	
rad51-10/RAD51	0.2 (100)	30 (54)	61 (50)	92 (31)	139 (20)	0.5 (100)	5 (71)	16 (57)	45 (50)	106 (36)	
rad51::URA3/RAD51	1.3 (100)	33 (90)	<i>75 (78)</i>	130 (65)	140 (53)	0.8 (100)	27 (100)	85 (100)	167 (85)	348 (68)	

TABLE 2. UV and γ-ray induction of His⁺ revertants in heteroallelic diploids^a

b NT, not tested.

(CAN→can1) were determined by fluctuation tests (see Materials and Methods). For rad51-10 (FF18816) and rad51::URA3 (FF18958) cells, the rates were found to increase by a factor of at least 10 (42 and 51 per 10⁷ cell divisions, respectively) compared with the rate (3.8 per 10⁷) in wild-type cells (FF18733). Such a mutator effect has been previously reported for other rad51 mutants and one of them, rad51-3 (mut5) was even isolated as a mutator strain (18).

(iv) Effects of rad51-10 on intragenic recombination. The rates of spontaneous His⁺ reversion events were determined by fluctuation tests, in diploids heteroallelic for his7 and with different combinations of RAD51, rad51-10, or rad51::URA3 alleles. In rad51-10 (FF181056) or rad51::URA3 (FF181005) homozygotes, the rates found, in both strains, were 0.2 per 10⁷ cell divisions, i.e., a 20-fold decrease compared with the rate (4 per 10⁷) found for RAD51 homozygotes (FF181002). In view of the mutator phenotype of rad51 mutants, it is possible that the histidine prototrophs were formed by mutagenesis and not by recombination. In the heterozygous state, rad51-10 had a semidominant effect, the rate (0.9 per 10⁷) being decreased by a factor of 4 with respect to the wild-type control.

After UV or γ -ray treatments (Table 2), His⁺ inductions in homozygous rad51 mutants were considerably decreased and, as mentioned above, the reversions were possibly due to mutation rather than to recombination events. In heterozygous cells, rad51::URA3 was found to be recessive while rad51-10 was semidominant, but only for UV induction. This, we believe, reflects a channelling of the metabolism of potentially recombinogenic UV lesions into another pathway.

In summary, these results show that rad51-10 and rad51::URA3 mutations considerably reduce, if not abolish, spontaneous and induced intragenic recombination, as it has been shown for other rad51 mutations (36, 45). They also show that spontaneous or UV-induced lesions that initiate recombination in wild-type cells are in the absence of the RAD51-encoded function or in the presence of the semidominant rad51-10 allele channelled into a nonrecombinogenic process.

(v) Mating-type switching. The mating-type switch is initiated by a double-strand break made by the HO endonuclease in the MAT locus. This break is repaired by recombination with a silent MAT copy residing at the HML or HMR locus, generating a switch of the mating type (for a review, see reference 53). After sporulation of diploids heterozygous for HO, the monosporic clones containing HO become diploid as a result of mating between cells of opposite mating type. The combination of HO and another mutation preventing the

repair of the double-stand breaks in a spore kills the cells. Thus, $rad52\ HO$ spores do not give rise to viable clones (33). Game (14) reported that some rad51 mutants were defective in mating-type switching. We asked whether the semidominant alleles and the deletion mutations have the same effect. Diploids heterozygous for HO and for rad51-10 or rad51::URA3 were constructed by crossing spores of strain DM3878 6B, containing HO, with either rad51-10 or rad51:: URA3 haploids (FF18818 or FF18959). Twenty-four tetrads of each diploid were analyzed. None of the spores, which, by deduction from the analysis of the viable monosporic clones were expected to carry $HO\ rad51$:10 or $HO\ rad51$::URA3, formed viable clones, indicating that rad51-10 and rad51::URA3 prevent the repair of the HO-mediated double-strand break.

(vi) Effects of rad51-10 and rad51::URA3 on meiotic intragenic recombination. Homozygosity for rad51-10 considerably reduces sporulation and spore viability (see above). This was also observed for rad51::URA3 cells (data not shown) and is known for other rad51 mutants. It is, however, possible to study the levels of meiotic recombination among viable spores (see Material and Methods). In strains that were heteroallelic for his7, we found that the rates of meiotic formation of histidine prototrophs were reduced by a factor of 20 in cells homozygous for rad51-10 (FF181056) or rad51::URA3 (FF181005) compared with the wild-type (FF181002) rate. The values found were 4, 5, and 90 histidine prototrophs per 105 viable spores, respectively.

Isolation of RAD51, similarities of the putative protein with RecA, and construction of a genomic deletion. (i) Cloning of **RAD51.** The RAD51 gene was cloned by complementation of the MMS sensitivity of rad51-10 cells. Diploids (FF18982) homozygous for this mutation were transformed with a centromeric YCp50 (ARS1 CEN4 URA3) (25) yeast genomic bank (43). Among 3,000 Ura+ transformants studied, one was MMS resistant and sporulated efficiently. These phenotypes cosegregated with the plasmid. The plasmid was extracted and amplified in E. coli. It contained a 17-kb insert which was subcloned into YRp7 (ARS1-TRP1) vector (55). A BamHI fragment of 3.7 kb was found to complement rad51-1 and rad51-10 mutations. The restriction map is shown in Fig. 5. This plasmid, after digestion by HpaI which recognizes a unique site in the insert, was integrated into diploid strain FF18981 which is homozygous for trp1 and heterozygous for rad51-10. Two transformants were subjected to meiotic analysis. In each case, no recombination between TRP1 and rad51 occurred among 24 tetrads analyzed. This was the result expected if the insert contained the RAD51 gene.

(ii) Nucleotide and amino acid sequences. The 3.7-kb BamHI fragment (Fig. 5) was sequenced. It was found to

^a The heteroallelic his7-1/his7-2 strains FF181002 (RAD51/RAD51), FF181005 (rad51::URA3/rad51::URA3/rad51::URA3/RAD51) are isogenic. Strains FF18056 (rad51-10/rad51-10) and FF181174 (rad51-10/RAD51) have a different genetic background but are isogenic.

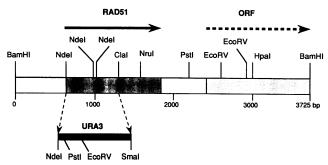


FIG. 5. Restriction maps of the genomic *BamHI* fragment containing the *RAD51* gene or the *rad51::URA3* construction. The *SmaI* and *ClaI* termini were made blunt before ligation.

contain two open reading frames (ORFs), of 1,200 and 1,302 bp, respectively, in the same orientation and separated by 515 bp. The second ORF is truncated. The *BamHI-EcoRV* fragment was subcloned and found to complement *rad51*, indicating that the first ORF contained *RAD51*.

The sequence of the first 2,174 nucleotides is shown in Fig. 6. The encoded predicted protein is 400-amino-acids long and has a calculated molecular mass of 42,970 Da. It contains ATP/GTP binding domains (21, 57) but no other characteristic consensus domains. It has two acidic regions: among the first 96 amino acids of the N-terminal region, 18 are acidic and 2 are basic. In the C-terminal region, of 33 amino acids, 10 are acidic and 2 are basic. The 5' upstream region contains two MluI restriction sites at -154 and -196 bp from the first ATG. Such sites are known to be potential cell cycle-dependent regulatory signals (for a review, see

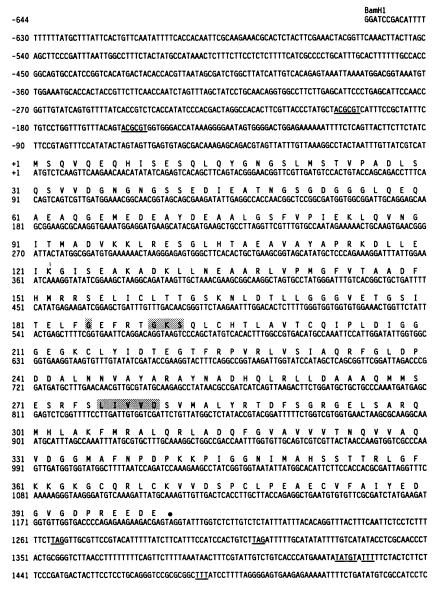


FIG. 6. Sequence of the *RAD51* gene and flanking DNA. The predicted amino acid sequence is shown by the one-letter code. Nucleotide residues are numbered relative to the ATG that initiates the ORF. The termination codon is indicated by a solid circle. Underlined regions at the 5' end indicate the *MluI* restriction sites, and underlined regions at the 3' end indicate putative transcription termination signals. The nucleotide binding consensus sequence GXXXXGKS and hhhhD (where h are hydrophobic amino acids) are stippled.

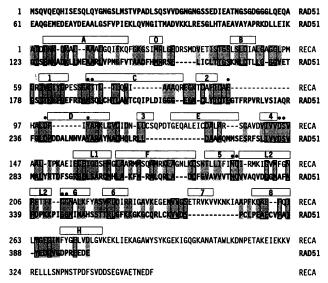


FIG. 7. Amino acid sequence homology between the Rad51 and the *E. coli* RecA proteins. Identical and conservatively substituted amino acids are boxed and shaded or shaded, respectively. RecA domains are indicated as defined by Story et al. (52). β-strands are indicated by numbers and α-helices are indicated by letters from A to H. L1 and L2 are disordered loops. Solid circles indicate invariant or conservatively substituted amino acid residues found in procaryotic RecA and T4 UvsX proteins and involved in ATP binding, ATP hydrolysis, and/or conformational changes (51).

reference 3). Sequences downstream of the translation stop codon show similarities to yeast transcription signals at distances from the stop codon comparable to those observed in the corresponding *CYC1* region (58).

(iii) Deduced Rad51 protein shows similarity with the procaryotic RecA proteins. A computer search for homologies with other proteins, using the FASTA research program (40), revealed that the highest homology scores were with the procaryotic RecA proteins. Figure 7 shows a possible alignment of the E. coli RecA (22) and Rad51 proteins. Although the two proteins have comparable sizes (352 and 400 amino acids, respectively), the region of similarities (see reference 6 for similarity matrix) do not overlap the whole proteins. The N-terminal region of Rad51 (122 amino acids) has no significant homology with RecA, and the C-terminal region of RecA (76 amino acids) has no significant homology with Rad51. In the overlapping region, if one excludes the gaps introduced in either sequence, 38% of residues are identical and 29% are similar. The relation between the structure of E. coli RecA protein and the properties of numerous recA mutants and mutant proteins allowed Story et al. (51, 52) to propose a correspondence between the protein domains and the different activities of the protein. In Fig. 7 are indicated the RecA domains, as they are defined by Story et al. (52), allowing to predict by sequence comparison the corresponding domains of Rad51 and their respective roles. Significant homologies are found with domains predicted to be involved in the following: (i) monomer interaction to form polymers (regions A and 0 of RecA); (ii) single-stranded DNA binding (regions L2 and G); (iii) double-stranded DNA binding (region L1); and (iv) ATP binding, ATP hydrolysis, and conformational changes of the protein. Amino acid residues, which in the model play a key role in these reactions and which are invariant or conservatively substituted in procaryotic RecA and T4 UvsX proteins

(for a review, see reference 41) are also conserved in Rad51. These residues, shown in the one-letter code and with reference to the E. coli protein, are as follows: Y-103, D-100, and G-265 (E in Rad51), involved in adenine fixation; K-72 and T-73 (S in Rad51), involved in interactions with the βand y-phosphate of ATP; D-144, S-145, and E-96, involved in ATP hydrolysis; and N-193, O-194, G-211, and G-212 involved in conformational changes upon ATP hydrolysis. Regions of RecA with no homology to Rad51 include the C-terminal part proposed to be involved in polymer interaction, β -strand region 7, part of the following loop (242 to 252) that is predicted to interact with LexA repressor, \(\beta\)-strand region 3, and α -helix E that interacts with the A and 0 region of another RecA molecule. The Rad51 protein has also regions of nonhomology to RecA, including its long N-terminal tail. Obviously, although the two proteins differ in many respects, the ATP binding core of the protein and the DNA binding regions appear to be conserved.

(iv) Construction of genomic deletion of RAD51. The NdeI-ClaI fragment of the RAD51 clone was replaced by the NdeI-SmaI fragment of YIp5 containing the URA3 gene (Fig. 5), thus deleting the sequence coding for the 184 N-terminal amino acids of Rad51. This plasmid (pTZ51Δ) was cut by BamHI and used to transform ura3 cells in order to disrupt the wild-type resident gene. The transformants were analyzed for MMS sensitivity. Southern analysis of the genomic DNA of the MMS-sensitive transformants showed that in all cases, the chromosomal rearrangements corresponded to the expected gene replacement event.

Inducibility of RAD51 by DNA-damaging agents. A plasmid containing a RAD51-lacZ gene fusion was constructed by transposition in RAD51 of a mini-Mu containing lacZ, the yeast LEU2 gene, and the 2µm origin of replication (10). This plasmid was integrated into the RAD51 locus of haploid cells. These cells therefore contain a wild-type copy of RAD51 and the chimeric gene under the control of the *RAD51* promoter. They have a wild-type phenotype. Cells in the logarithmic phase were irradiated and reincubated in YPD medium, and the β-galactosidase activity was measured in aliquots after different times of incubation. These experiments will be reported in more detail elsewhere; we show here the results of a typical experiment with cells having received UV doses of 0, 5, or 50 J/m² (Fig. 8). Comparable results were obtained after y-ray irradiation. The β-galactosidase activity increased rapidly following irradiation, peaking after 1.5 and 2.5 h of incubation. Upon further incubation, the activity progressively declined, reaching the level seen in the untreated cells after 8 h. The maximal induction was dose dependent, indicating that the level of induction is likely to depend on the amount of damage induced in the cells. Northern (RNA) analysis of the mRNA by G. Basile (4) and by T. Ogawa (38) also demonstrated the inducibility of RAD51.

DISCUSSION

In this report, we describe the isolation and characterization of suppressors of the UV and γ -ray sensitivities of diploids homozygous for a genomic deletion of SRS2, a gene coding for a DNA helicase (1). In all cases, the suppression was found to be due to an heterozygous mutation in RAD51, a gene involved in recombinational repair. These new rad51 mutations eliminate recombinational repair but differ from other mutations, including the deletion, in that they suppress in the heterozygous state the phenotypes of srs2::LEU2 homozygous cells and are, by themselves, semidominant.

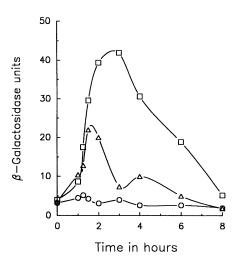


FIG. 8. Expression of *RAD51* following UV irradiation. Aliquots (10 ml) of a culture of exponentially growing cells containing a *rad51-lacZ* fusion (FF181082) were filtered. The cells were resuspended in saline to be irradiated after they were filtered and resuspended in YPD medium ($10^7/\text{ml}$). Duplicate aliquots (1 ml) were taken after different times of reincubation at 30°C for β-galactosidase assays. The UV doses applied were 0 (\bigcirc), 5 (\triangle), and 50 (\square) J/m².

We also report the sequence of *RAD51*, which reveals similarities between the deduced protein and the procaryotic RecA protein, and preliminary results showing the inducibility of *RAD51* by DNA-damaging agents.

Analysis of the results presented here, together with those earlier published (1), leads us to the following interpretation: the Srs2 helicase is involved in the metabolism of single-strand gaps, preparing a substrate for a DNA polymerase. In the absence of Srs2, recombination proteins bind to these gaps and channel their metabolism into a recombinational pathway. For as yet unknown reasons, recombination repair is successful when the events involve sister chromatids but lethal if they involve homologous chromosomes. A block in recombination prevents this channelling, and although the Srs2 helicase is absent, the gap is filled in by replication.

The above interpretation is partially based on comparisons of UV and γ-ray responses. UV does not induce doublestrand breaks, but single-strand gaps are presumably formed when close lesions on opposite strands are induced, the excision of one uncovering the other. Such gaps can be filled by error-prone replication with no involvement of recombination. Thus, UV survival curves of wild-type or recombination-deficient cells are sigmoidal and either do not or very weakly reveal heterogeneity in the cell population. Haploid cells with mutations in some genes of this pathway, such as SRS2 or REV3 (which codes for the putative error-prone polymerase [35]), are sensitive to UV if irradiated in the G₁ mitotic phase but resistant in G₂ because of recombinational repair between sister chromatids. In contrast, γ-rays induce double-strand and single-strand breaks, the double-strand breaks being repaired in haploids only by recombination between sister chromatids and in diploids, by exchanges between sister chromatids or homologous chromosomes. Mutants deficient in recombinational repair are y-ray sensitive and UV resistant. Thus, in some cases, the comparison of UV and γ -ray responses indicates which repair pathways are active in mutant cells, which can be further tested by the

TABLE 3. UV and γ -ray sensitivities of haploids and diploids in G_1 and G_2 mitotic phases

Cell type and relevant genotype	Sensitivity to treatment ^a							
		JV	γ-rays					
	$\overline{G_1}$	G ₂	$\overline{G_1}$	G ₂				
Haploids								
ŘAD51	+	+	_	+				
srs2::LEU2	_	+	_	+				
rad51-10	+	+	_	_				
srs2::LEU2 rad51-10	+	+		_				
rad51::URA3	+	+	_	_				
srs2::LEU2 rad51::URA3	+	+	_	_				
Diploids								
RAD51/RAD51	+	+	+	+				
srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2	_	+-	_	+-				
rad51-10/rad51-10	+	+	_	_				
srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2	+	+	_	_				
rad51-10/rad51-10								
rad51::URA3/rad51::URA3	+	+	_	_				
rad51-10/rad51-10	+	+	_	_				
srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2	+	+	+	+				
rad51-10/RAD51								
srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2	_	+-	_	+-				
rad51::URA3/RAD51								
rad51-10/RAD51	+	+	+-	+-				
rad51::URA3/RAD51	+	+	+	+				

^a +, wild-type sensitivity; -, large increase in sensitivity; +-, slight increase in sensitivity. For the sake of clarity, the increased UV sensitivity of rad51 versus RAD51 homozygous diploids is not taken into account.

study of radiation-induced mutagenesis and recombinogenesis

Table 3 summarizes the relative radiation sensitivities of the different strains studied here. The srs2::LEU2 haploids are sensitive to radiation only in G_1 . Their G_2 resistance to UV and to γ -rays is high and the UV mutagenesis is depressed: the error-prone repair is deficient, but not the recombinational repair. The rad51-10 and rad51::URA3 cells are UV resistant and γ -ray sensitive: the error-prone repair is active, but the recombinational repair is deficient. In double mutants srs2::LEU2 rad51, the G_1 UV resistance and mutability are restored, but the cells are now γ -ray sensitive: the blocking of recombination restores the ability of the cells to perform error-prone repair.

The situation is similar in diploids taking into account that following UV or γ -ray irradiation, DNA structures present because of the lack of Srs2 presumably lead to lethal interchromosomal exchanges. It is likely that the γ -ray sensitivity does not result from a deficiency in double-strand break repair, but from the channelling of single-strand gaps, known to occur frequently after γ -ray irradiation, into a recombinational pathway. None of the properties of srs2::LEU2 cells suggest that they are deficient in double-strand break repair. After UV, a block in recombination results in a suppression of UV sensitivity in diploids and haploids, indicating that single-strand gaps are now repaired. Clearly, this suppression cannot be monitored with γ -rays, since it is due to an absence of recombination which prevents double-strand break repair.

What is unique about the rad51 mutants that we have isolated as suppressors of the diploid sensitivity of srs2::LEU2 cells? First, the fact that when selecting MMS-resistant clones from srs2::LEU2/srs2::LEU2 diploids, we obtained heterozygous mutants for RAD51 and not for other

genes indicates that this gene plays a key role in this suppression phenomenon. Second, these rad51 mutants are by themselves semidominant. This is not the case for the rad51::URA3 and rad51-1 mutations which are recessive and do not suppress, when heterozygous, the srs2::LEU2 sensitivities.

How could rad51-10, in the heterozygous state, suppress both the UV and y-ray sensitivities of srs2::LEU2 cells? Since the haploids derived from these diploids exhibit deficiencies in the error-prone repair process (srs2::LEU2) or in the recombinational process (srs2::LEU2 rad51-10), both mechanisms must act in the diploid cells. The RAD51 and rad51-10 genes are codominant, rad51-10 being a dominant suppressor of the defects related to srs2::LEU2 and the wild-type gene conferring a dominant ability to perform recombination. If the UV- or γ-ray-induced structures which are lethal in srs2::LEU2 cells are indeed single-stranded regions, then in the suppressed diploids, Rad51-10, rather than the wild-type protein, binding to these gaps would suppress the lethal channelling. The wild-type protein would be preferentially involved in double-strand break repair. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that the semidominance of rad51-10 observed in SRS2+ diploids is largely abolished in srs2::LEU2 homozygous diploids, as if in the presence of structures caused by srs2::LEU2, the mutated protein is much less involved in recombinational complexes. An attractive hypothesis is that the Rad51-10 protein has an activity replacing that of Srs2 in the error-prone metabolism. If this is so, it is however not an absolute requirement, since in the deletion mutant, the absence of the Rad51 protein also results in the suppression of the UV sensitivity of srs2::LEU2 cells.

The recombination block in rad51-10 cells could result from the lack of association of the Rad51-10 protein with other recombination proteins or from the formation of nonfunctional complexes with DNA, as suggested by the semidominance and gene dosage effect of the mutation. By analogy with RecA functions, the rad51-10 mutation could still allow binding to single-stranded DNA but may prevent polymerization, synapsis formation, or strand exchange. This would explain the different effects of this mutation. There are mutations in recA, like recA1 or recA142, which in in vitro and/or in vivo tests, are codominant with the wild-type gene (28, 39). Both of these mutated proteins still bind single-stranded DNA but are unable to promote strand exchange.

The comparison of Rad51 and E. coli RecA sequences lends support to the idea that Rad51 protein binds to single-stranded DNA and interacts with itself or with other proteins. RAD51 and recA code for proteins of 400 and 352 amino acids with molecular masses of 43 and 38 kDa, respectively. Regions of homology between these proteins include domains that in RecA, are involved in singlestranded and double-stranded DNA binding, ATP binding, and ATP hydrolysis. These homologies, together with the recombination-defective phenotypes of rad51 mutants suggest that Rad51 might play the same role in recombination as RecA. Besides these conserved domains, each protein has regions with no homology to the other protein. It is conceivable that these regions are involved in interactions with other proteins. For instance, the RecA domain that is proposed to interact with the LexA repressor has no counterpart in Rad51. It should be kept in mind that even if recA controls mutagenesis and recombinogenesis in E. coli (for a review, see reference 56), there is no indication for a common control of these two processes in S. cerevisiae. Besides its role in recombination, RecA has a central role in mutagenesis, allowing the cleavage of the LexA repressor, thereby inducing a number of different genes. In *S. cerevisiae*, none of the recombination-deficient mutants shows depressed mutagenesis and many mutations, including *rad51*, are mutators. Furthermore, mutants deficient in induced mutagenesis, such as *rad18*, *rad6*, *srs2*::*LEU2*, or *rev3* mutants do not show depressed induced recombination.

Two other genes of S. cerevisiae have recently been shown to encode putative proteins sharing homologies with Rad51. One is RAD57; RAD57 mutants are affected in recombinational repair and belong to the same epistatic group as RAD51 (16). The putative protein (26) has a molecular mass of 52.9 kDa, contains an ATP/GTP binding domain, and was found to share with Rad51 the same regions of similarities to RecA. This raises the question of the respective roles of RAD51 and RAD57 in recombination and recombinational repair. The other gene is DMC1 (5). The corresponding protein shares similarities not only with Rad51 but also with RecA. The expression of DMC1 is specific to meiosis, and the corresponding protein may have a RecA-like function in meiotic recombination. However, it does not substitute for RAD51, since rad51 homozygous cells sporulate poorly, giving rise to spores with a viability decreased by 1 to 2 orders of magnitude. However, the role of RAD51 during meiosis is not clear. We found that meiotic intragenic recombination in viable spores was decreased at least 20 times by the homozygous rad51-10 or rad51::URA3 mutations, while Morrison and Hastings (36) reported that inter- and intragenic meiotic recombination in rad51-3 (mut5) homozygous diploids were at the wild-type level. This phenomenon could be allele dependent.

Two proteins having strand transfer activities have been biochemically characterized in S. cerevisiae. One, Stpa (34.8 kDa), is encoded by DST1 (9, 17). The protein has no significant homologies with RecA. The disrupted mutant cells have decreased rates of meiotic recombination but have no phenotype in mitotic cells. The second one, Sep1 (20, 24), the same protein as Stp β (11), is encoded by SEP1 (54), also called DST2 (12). The protein deduced from the gene sequence has a molecular mass of 175 kDa and also has no significant homologies with other known strand transfer proteins. The studies of disrupted mutants showed that the mutation has pleiotropic effects, including a block in meiosis and slightly decreased rates of spontaneous mitotic recombination. However, the mutants are not sensitive to MMS or y-rays, indicating that other strand transfer proteins must exist in mitotic cells.

In summary, the results reported here are in agreement with the idea that Rad51 protein, previously known to be involved in recombination, may be a yeast counterpart of the procaryotic RecA protein with respect to its recombination function: (i) Rad51 protein has significant homologies to RecA domains predicted to be involved in DNA binding, ATP binding, and ATP hydrolysis; (ii) the dominant suppression of phenotypes of srs2::LEU2 cells by rad51-10 is explained by a single-stranded DNA-binding activity; (iii) the semidominance of rad51-10 and the gene dosage effects demonstrate a competition between the wild-type and mutated proteins, competition that may be due to protein-protein interactions; and (iv) the RAD51 gene is inducible by DNA-damaging agents.

When preparing this manuscript, we learned that A. Shinohara, H. Ogawa, and T. Ogawa had an article in press (49), describing the *RAD51* sequence and showing that

Rad51 binds to single-stranded DNA, in agreement with the interpretation given to our results.

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